DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 344 271 CS 507 800

AUTHOR Danielson, Mary Ann
TITLE Heuristic-Leadership Model: Adapting to Current Training and Changing Times.
PUB DATE 31 Oct 91
NOTE 26p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Speech Communication Association (77th, Atlanta, GA, October 31-November 3, 1991).
PUB TYPE Speeches/Conference Papers (150) -- Information Analyses (070) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Business Administration; *Communication Research; Group Dynamics; *Heuristics; *Interpersonal Communication; Labor Relations; Leadership Training; *Models; *Organizational Communication; Professional Training
IDENTIFIERS Business Communication Teachers; Communication Strategies; Employee Participation; Empowerment; *Supervisor Subordinate Relationship

ABSTRACT

A model was developed for training individuals to adapt better to the changing work environment by focusing on the subordinate to supervisor relationship and providing a heuristic approach to leadership. The model emphasizes a heuristic approach to decision-making through the active participation of both members of the dyad. The demand among business leaders for employee involvement, attributed most frequently to the Japanese style of business management, is increasing, spawning a new buzzword, "empowerment." Based on such demands, a model must propose a communication methodology whereby subordinates and their superiors coactively work toward "heuristic-leadership decisionmaking." The primary means of promoting such decisions is G. A. Kelley's theory of constructive alternativism, an options generator. Then, alternatives must be linked to consequences, producing what E. MacNeal has termed "alternaquences." The individual then implements incremental decision strategies based on a forecasting of events along with the feedback provided by others. While this model has potential for training employees of the 1990s, it is not well suited to all industries. The model will be most effective in industries that are rapidly changing or that rely on individual choice and decision-making. The ideal participants are individuals wanting a greater role in their businesses and who want to share their expertise in improving their job situations. (Six footnotes and 1 figure are included; 34 references are appended.) (HB)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED344271

Heuristic-Leadership Model:

Adapting to Current Training and Changing Times

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Mary Ann Danielson

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

A working paper

presented to the Applied Communication section

of the Speech Communication Association

by

Mary Ann Danielson

Creighton University

October 31, 1991

CS507800

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

For years, corporations have turned to academicians for advice on managerial and business problems. Now, however, the tables appear to be turning. William E. Kirwan, President of the University of Maryland, stated, in an interview with The New York Times, "We've [University staff and professors] finally recognized that there's an awful lot a university can learn from a corporation". In coming full circle, with an open exchange of ideas and resources, business and academia can learn from and help one another.

In drawing from businesses' stated needs and ever-changing environment, I have developed a model which may be used to train individuals to better adapt to this ever-changing, challenging work environment. This model does vary from the more traditional views of training by neither advocating nor strictly adhering to the dominant, top-down style of leadership. Rather this model focuses on the subordinate-supervisor relationship and emphasizes a heuristic approach to leadership.

This model is not directly concerned with how the supervisor can 'make' his/her subordinates more motivated, more efficient, or more effective. This model is not directly related to subordinates implementing changes on their own. Rather, the focus of this model is on the subordinate-supervisor relationship, with significant emphasis on the subordinate's participation. The specific focus is on the active participation of both individuals in generating heuristic-leadership decision.

This model uses the heuristic approach. It is not prescriptive in nature, as such it can not be applied under all conditions in all situations. The heuristic[1] approach focuses on knowing how to decide what to do in a given situation, rather than specifically

---

[1] Unless otherwise indicated, the term heruistic will be applied, throughout this paper, in the "Modern Heuristic" sense of the word as developed by George Polya.

what to do in a given situation.

To summarize, the model presented in this paper does not focus on supervisors or subordinates independent of one another. Also, this model is not prescriptive. Rather this model emphasizes heuristic decision making through the active participation of both members of the dyad.

Thus, in presenting the full model as it applies to training, this paper will serve to illustrate and underscore my initial claim that business and academia can learn from and help one another. Specifically, this paper will identify the demands of business and industry, present the model and compare the adaptive features of the model to both the current and future training needs of business and industry.

BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY DEMANDS

In reading the current literature and listening to business leaders, I sense a real demand for "involving employees in the entire business" (Lord, 1991; Stoner, 1982; Swasy & Hymowitz, 1990). Hawken, in his book Growing a Business, believes that in order "for your business to succeed, you must take exceedingly good care of your people....The best way to keep good people is to create an atmosphere of hybrid vigor throughout your business, from top to bottom....Give them as many responsibilities as possible. Responsibility is participation, and this sense of participation in the 'big picture' of the business is the key factor that will keep your employees growing as people and as productive employees" (1987, pp. 209 & 221).

The concept of working with another to maximize human resources is perhaps most often attributed to the underlying philosophy of Japanese Management. "Recently, an increasing number of scholars and observers of Japanese organizations and their

management (Devos, 1975; McMillan, 1982; Pascale & Athos, 1981; Tanaka, 1979) have become aware of the possibility that the actual reason for the Japanese success can be traced to the ability of Japanese managers to maximize human resources in organizations" (Hirokawa & Miyahara, 1986, pp. 250-1). As one Japanese manager puts it, "Ideally we want our workers to behave in ways that are good for the company not because they feel they have to do it, or will be punished if they don't do it, but because they identify with the company and its people and feel it's the 'right' thing to do" (Hirokawa & Miyahara, 1986, p. 259).

The growing popularity, during the 1980's, of "involving employees in the entire business" has spawned a new buzzword for the 1990's: empowerment.

> When Ralph Stayer's workers botched sales orders, mislabeled products and even smashed a forklift into a wall, he didn't moan and he didn't groan, he just changed bosses. Stayer put his workers in charge. Yes, the same bored people who made careless, costly errors, he decided, could run his company, make it more profitable and turn it into a bigger, better business. That's precisely what happened at Johnsonville Foods, a family owned sausage company where workers reign supreme. They hire and fire each other, buy equipment, write budgets. They are their own bosses. (Omaha World-Herald, December 9, 1991, p. G-1).

This philosophy of empowerment appears to be spreading across corporate America, from small companies to Fortune 500 companies such as IBM, Goodyear and General Mills. "It's [empowerment] not a social experiment. It makes good business sense," according to McNulty, who manages a new worker-run General Mills cereal plant in Georgia. "Nobody knows the job as well as those doing it. If you empower those people to make the decisions, they make good ones" (Omaha World Herald, December 9, 1990, p. G-1). The results: increasing productivity and sales. (McNulty [Omaha World Herald, December 9, 1990, p. G-1] expects productivity to be 30 to 40% higher than traditional plants; Johnsonville Foods productivity has increased 50% since 1986; and Johnsonville Foods sales have increased more than 20% annually since changes were

made eight years ago.)

What exactly is business demanding? Business seeks to better compete in today's marketplace by increasing productivity and sales through "involving the employees in the entire business"--empowering them to be self-managed. The only real question remains, "How?" Kelley, management professor at Carnegie Mellon University's Graduate School of Industrial Administration in Pittsburgh, asks, "If for the last 10 years, you've been telling people what to do, then they say, 'Your're not going to do this anymore,' [You think] 'What am I going to do [now]'" (Omaha World Herald, December 9, 1990, p. G-1)? In other words, how can business erase the trend (of the 1980's) that Bennis (1989) characterizes as the "elevating of obedience over imagination" (p.162)?

Manz and Sims would argue that what is needed are "unleaders". Manz and Sims (1984) would characterize the leader of the future as "the person who, rather than providing subordinates with specific directions, can best help others to find their own way. Thus, we might characterize the 'unleader' as one who leads others to lead themselves" (p. 411).

THE MODEL

Drawing both from business/industries' demands and the partial solution offered by Manz and Sims, I believe what is needed for the training of the employees of the future is a model whereby employees and their managers work together to learn <u>how</u> to make decisions. Specifically, I propose a communication methodology whereby subordinates and their superiors coactively work toward, what I term, heuristic-leadership decision-making.

To better understand this model I, first, offer an explanation of some of the underlying components (assumptions) of the model; then, outline the basis for the design and finally, present the design structure.

Components/Assumptions

Three underlying components of the model include the necessity of a methodology, the coactive basis for generating decisions and the heuristic-leadership perspective.

A Methodology

A methodology is a "philosophical study of plurality of methods. . . . It always has to do with the activity of acquiring knowledge, not with a specific investigation in particular. It is, therefore, a metamethod" (Watzlawick, 1974, p. 8). The need for a methodology, or options generator, seemed obvious given that the decision that best serves one's needs in any given situation may not be the decision that best serves one's needs in another situation or at another time.

Coactive Generation

To coactively generate heuristic-leadership decisions, the participants must be engaged in both an intrapersonal and interpersonal process.[2] According to Bass, "Decision making becomes shaped as much by the pattern of interaction among managers as by the contemplation and cognitive processes of the managers" (1983, p. 27). There is nothing in Bass's book, Organizational Decision Making, however, that would indicate this process of mutual simultaneous shaping must be limited to the managerial

---

[2] Individuals intrapersonally create meaning and interpersonally manage meanings. Pearce and Cronen (1980) stated, "Communication is the process by which persons cocreate and comanage social reality (Social reality being what people believe and believe what other people believe.)' (p. 21). Stated another way, "The locus for meaning in communication is intrapersonal, but locus of action is interpersonal" (Pearce & Cronen, p. 148).

level only. Given that "decision making becomes shaped as much by the pattern of interaction among managers as by the contemplation and cognitive processes of the managers", it seems reasonable then that decision making would also become shaped as much by the pattern of interaction among supervisors and their subordinates as by the contemplation and cognitive processes of the supervisors and their subordinates. Thus, the two are linked, as denoted by the subordinate-supervisor (with the subordinate listed first as they are ultimately the choice makers and to serve as a subtle reminder that this model approaches training differently from the traditional methods). The linkage, according to Gore, is "through the heuristic process [whereby] the private world of one individual is linked both to others and to the collectively constituted world which supports and nourishes individual existence" (1964, p. 13).[3]

Heuristic Decisions

The generation of heuristic-leadership decisions, consistent with the methodology approach, is concerned with "procedures which are independent of subject matter and have application to wide ranges and types of problems" (O'neill, 1964, p. 7). According to Polya, founder of "Modern Heuristic", "The aim of heuristic is to study the methods and rules of discovery and invention" (1945, p. 102). More specifically, "modern heuristic endeavors to understand the process of solving problems, especially the mental operations typically useful in this process. . . . Experience in solving problems and experience in watching other people solving problems must be the basis on which heuristic is built" (p. 118).

---

3 Gore is not using heuristic in the "Modern Heuristic" sense. Rather, Gore states, "The very essence of the heuristic process is that the factors validating a decision are internal to the personality of the individual instead of external to it" (1964, p. 12).

Heuristic-Leadership

My view of heuristic-leadership is congruent with Manz's concept of self-leadership. Manz (1986) conceptualized self-leadership as "a comprehensive self-influence perspective that concerns leading oneself toward performance of naturally motivating tasks as well as managing oneself to do work that must be done but is not naturally motivating. It includes the self-management of immediate behaviors" (p. 589), but "goes beyond self-management to address redefining one's tasks and one's relationship with and/or perception of tasks so that desired performance results from a natural motivational process" (p. 591). In discussing strategies for self-leadership practices, Manz states, "Perhaps the ultimate goal of self-leadership practice should be to enhance the effectiveness of employees in managing their own thought patterns. For example, in addition to systematically managing one's own behavior or altering the physical context or the process by which work is performed, one can manage his/her mental representation of the work. In a sense, the job is redesigned mentally rather than physically" (p. 594).

Summary

A design for training individuals, capable of dealing with the challenges of the 1990's, requires the coactive generation of, what I term, heuristic-leadership decisions. The generation of these decisions are best completed under the auspices of a methodology which is not specific to any one situation, relationship, or business/industry.

Design

The primary means for generating heuristic-leadership decisions is Kelly's (1955) theory of constructive alternativism, modified by MacNeal's concept entitled alternaquences, and supplemented with pertinent aspects of Sander's (1987) Cognitive

Foundations of Calculated Speech. When one makes decisions, one is, in essence, constructing alternatives. These alternatives, however, should not be considered in isolation. Rather, the consequences of each alternative need to be considered with that alternative. Thus, when one makes decisions, one is actually constructing alternaquences. The means by which alternaquences are constructed and shared may be explained through Kelly's theory of constructive alternativism and the logic of Sander's calculated speech.

Constructive Alternativism

Theory

Kelly (1955) provides the general framework of the design through his theory of constructive alternativism. His basic postulate of which states: "A person's processes are psychologically channelized by the way in which he anticipates events."[4] The "anticipation of events" reflects an intrapersonally created meaning and the "ways in which" meanings are intrapersonally created are called constructs.

Constructs are bi-polar in nature and individuals use them to group events. It is through the grouping of events, on the basis of similarities and differences, that persons give structure and meaning to the world. As Johnson explains,

> The environment is known through . . . cognitive structures and these structures control our reactions to the environment. The individual does not just respond to stimulus he perceives; rather, he reconstructs a pattern of representation of certain attributes of the environment and then adapts to the environment as he has constructed it (1972, p. 19).

---

[4] Kelly developed eleven corollaries to help explain the intrapersonal and interpersonal construction of alternatives. These eleven corollaries will not be furthered explained within this paper but may be found in The Psychology of Personal Constructs (Volume I).

Stated another way, " Man looks at his world through transparent patterns or templates which he creates and then attempts to fit over the realities of which the world is composed" (Kelly, 1955, pp. 8-9). Kelly gives the name constructs to these patterns which are tentatively tried on for size. Individuals have constructs and systems of constructs, or interpretive schemas, which they employ to "channelize their activity"; in this case, decision making.

Social Perspective Taking

Meanings begin at the intrapersonal level, manifest themselves in human acts, and eventually extend to the relationship and the human interact through social perspective-taking. Kelly (1955) argues that perceivers rely on sets of personal judgments (constructs) to erect understandings of social situations and thus predict and control events.

The constructive-alternativism framework implies that our understanding of others is always in terms of images or impressions. "The individual constructs an impression of the actions, qualities, or attitudes of the other through interpreting aspects of the other's appearance and behavior within particular cognitive dimensions" (Delia, 1976, p. 367). In constructing other persons, perceivers use a characteristic set of constructs relevant to interpersonal judgments. Such systems of interpersonal constructs form the basis for communication choices, since constructs are the dimensions along which communication-relevant listener characteristics are judged. The individual then employs a "strategy" which is the organization of behavior toward some end or purpose and which rests on the individual's prediction [reconstruction of anticipated events]. "In essence, Kelly implies that people do not react to the past, but seek to address accurately the problems of the future. They seek to develop cognitive

schemata that will facilitate their ability to anticipate the future" (Reardon, 1991, p. 14).

Summary

A communication methodology must have an options generator. In this communication methodology the options generator is Kelly's theory of constructive alternativism which will allow individuals to construct or reconstruct alternative options. According to Kelly's theory, given that human actions are channelized by interpretive schemas (construct systems) which outline the alternative courses of action (decisions), in order to alter human actions, one would have to alter the construct systems which outline the alternative courses of action. Alternaquencing is one way of changing one's construct systems.

Alternaquences

Although actions cannot in fact be separated from consequences, deciders talk about them as if they could be. According to MacNeal, however, "There is no way of separating in fact a course of action from it's consequences. The distinction is purely verbal" (1984, p. 291). "Korzybski considered elementalism -- splitting verbally what cannot otherwise be split -- as a grave structural flaw in language. . . . Consider, then, the verbal separation of courses of action from their consequences. So great is this separation that no English term satisfactorily bridges it" (MacNeal, 1983, pp. 163-164).

Definition

In the autumn of 1950, MacNeal and Kessler attempted to overcome the elementalistic view of actions apart from consequences. They coined a new term:

alternaquence (alternative-with-its-consequence). According to MacNeal, "Without alternatives, choice vanishes. With alternatives come consequences. Hence, alternaquences properly portray the structure of choice" (1984, p. 293). MacNeal, therefore, refers to alternaquences as things that can be changed. "The term encompasses whatever I have the power to do and all the repercussions thereof" (1984, p. 291). The things that cannot be changed are dubbed situations. Situations and alternaquences correspond to separations that can in fact be made. (Situations and alternaquences are non-elementalisms which separate verbally what can be separated in fact.)

Demalogic

The superstructure for constructing the alternaquences "depend on the processes by which decisions may be related to each other and transformed. These processes and decisions depend, in turn, on the patterns we follow in relating our reasons to our actions" (MacNeal, 1984, p. 292). Demalogic, a neologism MacNeal coined for **DE**cision-**MA**king **logic**, is defined by MacNeal as "any of various modes of reasoning that may be used in making decisions. . . . Demalogics is the theory that "twenty or so disparate and often unnoticed decision-making modes act as decisional frameworks governing the interpretation and relevance of events . . . with pervasive effects on human behavior" (1987, p. 235). (emphasis mine). Knowing when to use or not to use demalogics is known as comparative demalogics. Comparative demalogics rejects the notion of a universal or "best" demaprocedure and also treats each decision-making approach as a different kind of map useful in some situations and not in others. [5]

---

5 The predominant demalogic in this thesis is the originative pattern of decision making which requires the linking of consequences to the proposed alternative courses of action. The other four basic patterns of decision making include the absolute, action-comparative, responsive, and goal-directed, none of which require alternaquencing.

Summary

When an individual makes decisions, s/he is constructing alternaquences in which her/his anticipation of the event is shaped by demalogical templates. How one actually links the anticipated consequences of the alternatives to the proposed alternatives has not been addressed by MacNeal at the time of this writing. Sanders, however, in his book Cognitive Foundations of Calculated Speech, provides a "systematic basis for arraying alternatives and linking them to consequences (outcomes)" (1987, p. 36).

Linking Alternative to Consequences

The "systematic basis for arraying alternatives and linking them to consequences" is found in the cognitive underpinnings of Sander's strategic communication. Communication, according to this theory, is strategic insofar as messages are intentionally designed to maximize the likelihood of desired consequences or minimize the likelihood of undesired ones.

Theoretical Review

In a review of Cognitive Foundations of Calculated Speech, Craig (1988) summarized the theory as follows:

> The key theoretical move is to found a theory of strategic communication on a theory of interpretation, roughly as follows: A message can usually be interpreted in various ways. Specifically how an utterance or act is interpreted is greatly influenced by its relation to other elements of the ongoing text or dialogue in which it occurs. Because subsequent acts or utterances can cause previous ones to be reinterpreted, the coherence of an ongoing discourse is emergent and fluid. . . . The theory shows that, for a message having certain qualities, entered at a certain juncture in a discourse, some interpretations and some subsequent messages will be better warranted than others. Warranted -- not necessitated, or caused. . . . The principles of specific interpretation that can warrant a decision state, in general, that a specific interpretation of an utterance is warranted insofar as it mazimizes the contribution of the utterance to the coherence and progress of the unfolding discourse. [If the participants in social

> interactions are committed to mutually reaching a conclusion (decision), it is necessary for the sequence to cohere and progress. In other words, a message can be designed to be interpreted as part of an ongoing sequence in such a way that, in the resulting context, some messages will subsequently be easier to convey than others. A theory of strategic communication can thus go far to explain both why messages are designed the way they are and why they have the effects they do. (pp. 367-368).

Managerial Application

The principles formulated by Sanders apply directly to the practice of communication in various professions including management. The goal of managers, from Sanders' perspective, is to constrain the speech and behavior of subordinates so it is probable they will achieve the coordination and cooperation needed to perform tasks. This goal requires that managers "make explicit the antecedents of defined tasks, of their creation and assignment, and also the grounds of coherence among them so as to foster desired understandings. It further requires the managers to make explicit the relevance of prototypical speech and behavior to the task and its antecedents" (Sanders, 1987, p. 250). Such communication practices provide workers "an independent basis for judging the consequences for coordination and cooperation for contemplated speech or behavior, and the consequences for fulfilling task requirements" (Sanders, 1987, p. 250).

Strategic Communication

The three pertinent aspects of strategic communication featured in this design are: 1) the capacity to forecast, 2) grounds of coherence, and 3) incremental change.

Forecasting

Strategic communication is contingent on, and explained by, the capacity to estimate (forecast) the utility of contemplated utterances and behaviors in bringing about some consequence (coordination and cooperation). The cognitive basis for this

capacity can be represented as a set of principles for modeling the connection between alternative contemplated entries at a given decision point (juncture) and the possibilities and plausibilities of entries subsequent to that point (consequence). The connection between contemplated entries and their consequences (alternaquences) can be modeled in terms of the principles of specific interpretation.

At a given juncture in a discourse or dialogue, an individual will formulate entries predicated on his/her forecast of the projected interpretive consequences. The projected interpretive consequences, in turn, are contingent on 1) content and style and 2) what preceeds it and what follows it in the unfolding discourse or dialogue. Thus, the projected interpretive consequences of an entry can change as the sequence progresses and different possible consequences of formulating an entry in a particular way are more or less plausible. Stated another way:

> If an entry has certain features, and its antecedents or consequents have certain features, and those features are related in a particular way, then there is a *warrant* -- whose strength may vary with the proximity and the number of those antecedents or consequents -- for *judging*:
> (1) that an entry has certain meanings;
> (2) what specific interpretation of an entry to focus on;
> (3) that certain subsequent entries are possible, with a relative probability (Sanders, 1987, p. 39).

As the specific interpretation that an individual creates is also contingent on 1) content and style and 2) what preceeds it and what follows it in the unfolding discourse or dialogue, the specific interpretation may also be characterized as fluid (subject to revision over time) and coherent.

Ground of Coherence

A specific interpretion is coherent when it has commonalities with both

antecedents and consequents thus contributing to the progress of the unfolding discourse of dialogue. Given that entries cohere with their antecedents on a specific interpretation, then for each entry in a sequence, there is an array of possible entries that can follow coherently. This results in a branching network of possible sequences that can follow the contemplated entry at a given juncture. With reference to principles of specific interpretation and forecasting principles, as the number of prior entries known to contributors increases, the basis for formulating entries that add to the ground of coherence also increases. Stated another way, individuals as they engage in discourse will gain experiences which can influence their subsequent entries by making some alternative entries, at a given juncture, seem more plausible(credible) than others in reaching a desired outcome. To the extent that the individuals are committed to mutually reaching a heruistic-leadership decision, they will choose entries that cohere and contribute to the progress of the unfolding dialogue.

Incremental Change

"The contributors to a dialogue are operationally independent choice-makers each of whom alternately changes the environment in which the other(s) subsequently make choices in seeking a preferred outcome" (Sanders, 1987, p. 184).[6] Therefore, outcomes in dialogues depend not on the combined effect of simultaneous choices, but on sequences of choices, as in multi-stage decision problems.

Formulating entries in dialogues thus "closely approximates what is presumed in studies of complex-decision problems, where the environment is dynamic rather than

---

6 The decision-theoretic account explains the capacity of communicators to be adaptive, and even innovative if necessary, in formulating entries so as to improve the chances of bringing about some consequence.

static, and the full set of alternatives and contingencies cannot be known at a decision point (juncture)" (Sanders, 1987, p. 184). This motivates incremental decision strategies which Radford (1977) describes as follows:

> . . . the decision maker rejects the possibility of constructing a comprehensive decision model of the decision situation and concentrates on courses of action that are designed to bring about only an incremental change in the present circumstances. He selects a course of action he considers will lead to improvements in the present situation, implements it cautiously, and reevaluates his decision as soon as information about the effects of his actions is available. The reevaluation includes a process by which both the means to achieve objectives and the objectives themselves can be altered if this is judged to be desirable in the light of the new information that has become available (p. 12).

Summary

An individual utilizing a heuristic-leadership approach to his/her decision making would construct alternaquences and implement incremental decision strategies based on his/ her anticipation of events, which, in turn, is based on his/her forecasting given the ground of coherence of the discourse or dialogue.

Design Structure for a Communication Methodology for Subordinates-Supervisors

The communication methodology represented in Figure 1 (see p. 18) consists of three general stages: 1) generate alternaquences, 2) evaluate and select alternaquences, and 3) evaluate choice. Each stage contains several sequential elements. The three stages must be followed in the sequence indicated, but the entire sequence of stages may be repeated.

Feedback (FB) and feedforward (FF) mechanisms are also represented in Figure 1. The feedback loop provides the means by which the methodology may be

altered. Given that the full set of alternatives and contingencies cannot be known at a decision point, individuals may need to alter their decision strategy by making incremental changes. The feedback mechanism is a tool which explicitly allows for the incremental changes by 'feeding' information learned from past exchanges 'back' into our present (or future) generation, evaluation, and selection of alternaquences.

The feedforward loop (1.2 to 2.1) provides some basis for the selection criteria which are based on the nature of the particular problem. These guidelines are then fed forward (FF) to provide the basis for generating the criteria for the selection of alternaquence.

ADAPTIVE FEATURES

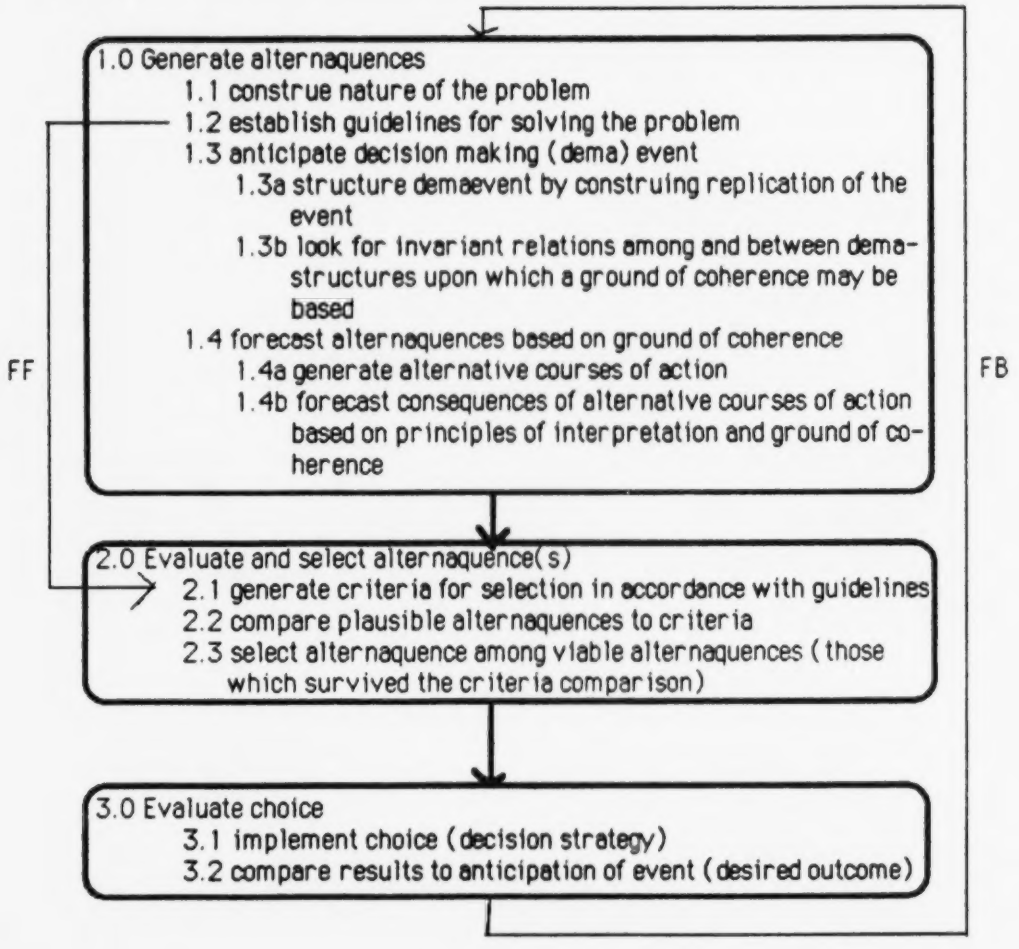
This design provides a means (not necessarily the means) of training by which subordinates-supervisors coactively generate heuristic-leadership decisions, and thus, supervisors "empower" their subordiantes by sharing the decision-making process. Four "unique" features of the model, which are especially appropriate for meeting training needs by allowing for the various contingencies the subordinates and their supervisors will face, include: 1) methodology, 2) coactive nature of decision making with the emphasis on subordinates' action, 3) creating (and if necessary, changing) alternaquences, and 4) feedback.

Methodology

Given that rote memorization limits choices in the face of ever-changing times, subordinates need a method by which to determine which method(s) are appropriate. In other words, subordinates need a meta-method or methodology for decision making.

Figure 1

Design Structure for a Communication Methodology for Subordinates-Supervisors


1.0 Generate alternaquences
1.1 construe nature of the problem
1.2 establish guidelines for solving the problem
1.3 anticipate decision making (dema) event
1.3a structure demaevent by construing replication of the event
1.3b look for invariant relations among and between dema-structures upon which a ground of coherence may be based
1.4 forecast alternaquences based on ground of coherence
1.4a generate alternative courses of action
1.4b forecast consequences of alternative courses of action based on principles of interpretation and ground of coherence
FF
FB
2.0 Evaluate and select alternaquence(s)
2.1 generate criteria for selection in accordance with guidelines
2.2 compare plausible alternaquences to criteria
2.3 select alternaquence among viable alternaquences (those which survived the criteria comparison)
3.0 Evaluate choice
3.1 implement choice (decision strategy)
3.2 compare results to anticipation of event (desired outcome)

Coactive

Also given that employees have been "told" what to do and how to do it for so many years, they are not adequately prepared to act alone. Therefore, subordinates-supervisors need to work together; subordinates to actively generate alternaquences, evaluate and select alternaquence(s) and evaluate their choice and supervisors tohelp train employees to define the nature of the problem, apply appropriate guidelines for solving and assist in generation of criteria and comparison/evaluation of choice.

Alternaquences

Generating alternaquences requires that the subordinate to look beyond their alternative (in essence, adopt a supervisory point-of-view) and recognize and accept the consequences of their alternatives and for their behavior. By looking beyond their choice to the alternaquence of their action, subordinates are included in "the larger picture" of the business, exactly what business has been hoping.

Further, as situations change and/or subordinates "grow" in experience, the subordinate will be better able to define the nature of the problem, the applicable guidelines, the event and, ultimately, the alternaquences.

Feedback

The changing of alternaquences, over time and from situation-to situation, is possible due to a continual learning loop, implicit in Kelly's (1955) theory, as denoted by the feedback (FB) loop. The feedback (FB)loop of the model provides the opportunity to draw on past experiences and learn from current experiences. As Kelly (1955) might explain, each experience will clarify the individual's anticipation of the event which, in turn, will clarify the

choice of strategies applicable for the situation.

Final Notes

While this model has potential as a model for training the employees of the 1990's, it is not well suited to all industries, businesses or individuals. This model will not work well in industries that rely on rote skills or behaviors (The process is too cumbersome for a job that requires little to no original thinking.), businesses who want immediate bottom-line profits (The changing way of thinking required to change behaviors take time.), and individuals, who want to be told what to do and how to do it, will not participate; therefore, there can be no coactive decision making and the model, as designed, will not work.

The model will be more effective in industries that are rapidly changing or that rely on individual choice and decision-making. The model will also work well for businesses who are interested in developing and retaining employees and/or interested in developing their workforce into a valuable asset. Finally, the ideal participants, for this type of training model, are individuals who want a greater role in their businesses and its decisions and want to share their expertise in improving their job situation and business.

CONCLUSION

In summary, this paper has attempted to answer businesses demand for "involving employees in the entire business" by drawing from business experiences and academic theories to develop and present a communication methodology whereby subordinates-supervisors coactively generate heuristic-leadership decisions. The model developed to "empower" the employees of the future neither advocated nor adhered to the traditional, top-down form of leadership typically exhibited in most businesses/industires. Rather this model emphasized

heuristic decision making through the active participation of both the subordinates and the supervisors.

The options generated in this communication methodology were generated by means of Kelly's (1955) theory of constructive alternativism, modified by MacNeal's (1984) alternaquences, and supplemented with pertinent aspects of Sander's (1987) Cognitive Foundations of Calculated Speech.

Individuals utilizing a heuristic-leadership approach to decision making would construct alternaquences and implement incremental decision strategies based on their anticipations of events, which, in turn, was based on their forecast given the ground of coherence of the discourse or dialogue. The three stages of the design structure for the communicaiton methodology were: 1) Generate alternaquences, 2) Evaluate and select alternaquence(s), and 3) Evaluate choice.

In coming full circle (identifying business' needs to drawing from academic theories to tailoring the model back to business), I reassert my belief that, with open exchanges like this presentation and convention, business and academia can learn from and help one another.

REFERENCES

Bass, B. (1983). Organizational decision making. Homewood, Il: Richard D. Irwin.

Bennis, W. G. (1989). Why leaders can't lead. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Craig, R. (1988). [Review of Cognitive foundations of calculated speech: Controlling understandings in conversation and persuasion]. Quarterly Journal of Speech, 74 (3), 367-368.

Delia, J. G. (1976). A constructivist analysis of the concept of credibility. Quarterly Journal of Speech, 62 (4), 361-375.

DeVos, G. (1975). Apprenticeship and paternalism. In E. F. Vogel (Ed.), Modern Japanese organization and decision-making. (pp. 228-248). Tokyo: Charles E. Tuttle.

Gore, W. J. (1964). Administrative decision-making: A heuristic model. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Hawken, P. (1987). Growing a business. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Hirokawa, R. Y., & Miyahara, A. (1986). A comparison of influence strategies utilized by managers in American and Japanese organizations. Communication Quarterly, 34(3), 250-265.

Johnson, D. (1972). Systematic introduction to the psychology of thinking. New York: Harper & Row.

Kelly, G. A. (1955). The psychology of personal constructs. (Volume I). New York: W. W. Norton.

Lord, M. (1991, May 20). How Nabisco solved its labor problem. U.S. News and World Report, p. 60.

MacNeal, E. (1983). Semantics & decision making. Et cetera, 40(2), 158-176.

MacNeal, E. (1984). The flaw. Et cetera, 41(3), 290-298.

MacNeal, E. (1987a). MacNeal's master atlas of decision making: Groundwork. Et cetera, 44(3), 224-235.

MacNeal, E. (1987b). MacNeal's master atlas of decision making: Groundwork continued. Et cetera, 44(4), 339-349.

MacNeal, E. (1988a). MacNeal's master atlas of decision making: Logics for the single decision. Et cetera, 45(1), 3-14.

MacNeal, E. (1988b). MacNeal's master atlas of decision making: Logics for the single decision continued. Et cetera, 45(2), 118-127.

MacNeal, E. (1988c). MacNeal's master atlas of decision making: Logics for interconnected decisions. Et cetera, 45(3), 218-230.

MacNeal, E. (1988d). MacNeal's master atlas of decision making. Logics for interconnected decisions continued. Et cetera, 45(4), 311-324.

Manz, C. C. (1986). Self-Leadership: Toward an expanded theory of self-influence processes in organizations. Academy of management review, 11(3), 585-600.

Manz, C. C., & Sims, H. P., Jr. (1984). Searching for the "unleader": Organizational member views on leading self-managed groups. Human Relations 37(5), 409-424.

McMillan, C. J. (1982). From quality control to quality management: Lessons from Japan. Business Quarterly, 47(1), 31-40.

More companies putting real power into the hands of workers. (1990, December 9). Omaha World Herald, p. G-1.

Oneill, J. L. (1964). Trends in information sciences relative to naval intelligence needs. Science Park, State College, PA: HRB-Singer.

Pascale, R. T. , & Athos, A. G. (1981). The art of Japanese management. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Pearce, W. B. , & Cronen, B. E. (1980). Communication, action, and meaning. New York: Praeger.

Polya, G. (1945). How to solve it. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Radford, K. J. (1977). Complex decision problems: An integrated strategy for resolution. Reston, VA: Reston Publishing.

Reardon, K. K. (1991). Persuasion in practice. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Sanders, R. E. (1987). Cognitive foundations of calculated speech: Controlling understandings in conversation and persuasion. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Stoner, J. (1982). Management. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Swasy, A. , & Hymowitz, C. (1990, February 9). The workplace revolution. Wall Street Journal. p. R-7.

Tanaka, H. (1979). Learning through experience: A trend in new employee education in Japan. In R. C. Huseman (Ed.), Academy of Management Proceedings, 419.

Watzlawick, R. , Weakland, J. H. , & Fisch, R. (1974). Change: Principles of problem formulation and problem resolution. New York: W. W. Norton.